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Principles of good monitoring

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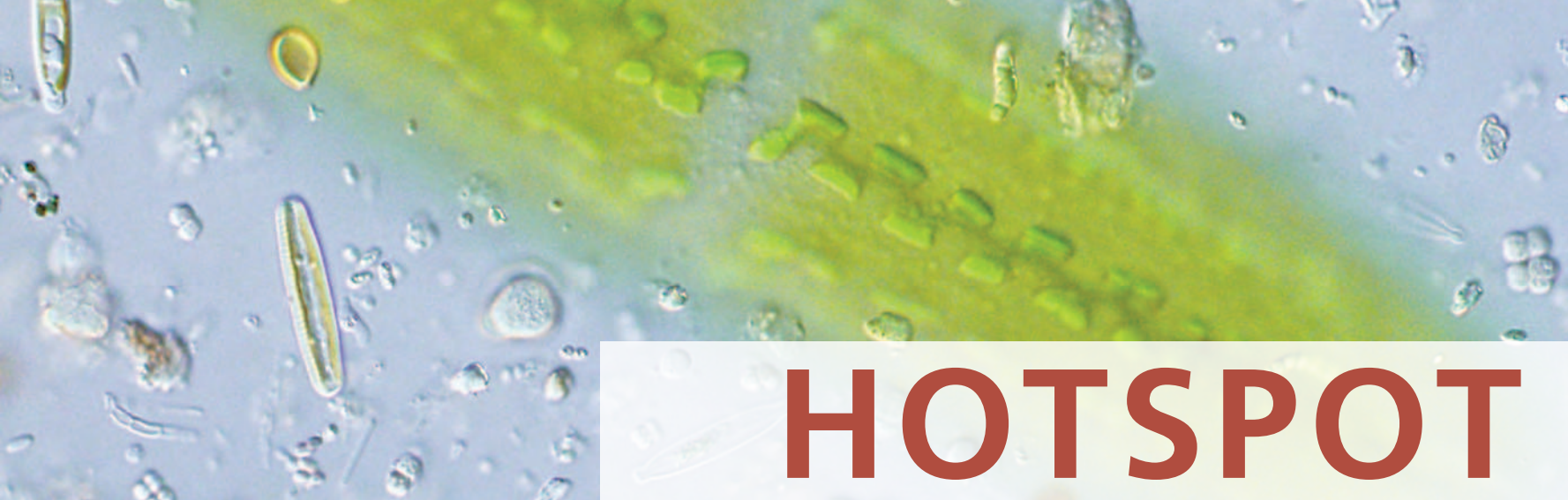
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Measuring biodiversity

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Cover (top to bottom):

1. Diverse micro-organisms (photo credit: Edward A. D. Mitchell); 2. Determining the diversity of fruit varieties (photo credit: ProSpecieRara Basel); 3. Archived butterfly diversity (photo credit: Beat Ernst Basel); 4. Biologists working in the field (photo credit: Edi Stöckli)

The scientific basis

Principles of good monitoring

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If monitoring follows certain rules, reliable conclusions can be made about the state of and changes in populations of the organisms concerned. Careful sample selection and minimisation of observational errors are key.

Biodiversity is a very broad term encompassing the natural diversity of genes, individuals, populations, species, habitats and biocoenoses. In order to measure biodiversity one must first decide which of its aspects can be determined most usefully, precisely and cost-effectively. The population, i.e. the collection of all the organisms of the same species which live in the same geographical area, is of key significance. A population can most directly be described by its size, also known as abundance, followed by its distribution and by the patterns of abundance and distribution over time (trend). All three of these metrics are of key importance in biodiversity monitoring (Yoccoz et al. 2001). The principles described below are also relevant to species richness, another metric often used to describe biodiversity. Distribution and abundance are often treated as separate measures even though distribution is simply a less informative summary of abundance: a species occurs at a location if its abundance is greater than zero. If a species' abundance in every location in a given area is known, then the species' distribution is also known, but the reverse is not true. Despite this equivalency it is often useful for practical reasons to treat these two measures separately, as data collection protocols and methods of statistical analysis may vary.

The laws of statistics

It is fundamentally important to recognise that biodiversity metrics such as abundance or distribution should be measured based on the principles of statistical sampling. This means that a researcher selects a proportion of the whole (called a sample), examines and describes it and then, based on the laws of statistics, draws conclusions (i.e. extrapolates or, in statistical terms, makes an inference) about the

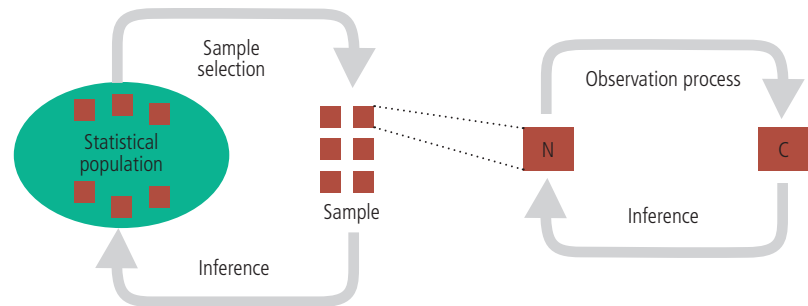


Fig. 1. Every assessment of biodiversity corresponds to a two-step sample survey N = Population; C = Count

whole (the “statistical population”) from which the sample was drawn. This is not simply a case of “nice to have” or of satisfying academic desires; the aim of this process is solely to ensure that reliable inference can be drawn about biodiversity.

Correcting observational errors

In stark contrast to sampling in other fields, such as economics or sociology, a researcher sampling populations of animals or plants almost always has to deal with systematic observational errors which mostly result from individuals or species remaining undetected. The probability of detecting species in the field is therefore usually smaller than 100% (Kéry 2008). Neither distribution nor abundance can be observed directly and without error. This trivial insight, familiar to anyone who spends time watching nature, has far-reaching implications for the type of sampling employed as well for data analysis. Whenever a researcher uses counts in the field in order to determine the absolute size of a population or the real occurrence of a species, this systematic observational error must be taken into account in the sampling procedure so as to be able to statistically eliminate it at a later stage.

A numerical example

One has to imagine the measurement of biodiversity in a given area as a two-step sampling procedure (Fig. 1). The first step entails the definition of the statistical population about which inferences are to be drawn. This could be, for example, the to-

tal population of Great tits in Switzerland. A sampling unit is defined next (e.g. 1 km² squares) and a certain number is selected at random, resulting in an initial spatial sample. Each square hosts a population N that can be measured in a second step, e.g. by determining the number of Great tit territories (C). This count represents the second, nested sample. The observability of Great tits is smaller than 100%, therefore $C \leq N$. Consequently, statistical models must be employed to describe the observation process, so that an undistorted estimate of the status N in the sampling square can be derived from measuring C. In a further step the overall national population of Great tits can thus be projected. Let us take a simple numerical example and assume that we have randomly selected 1000 of the roughly 42,000 km² of the Swiss territory. Let us further assume that we found a total of 8000 Great tit territories in these 1000 squares and that on average 2 out of 10 territories would have been missed so that the territories' probability of detection in the sample C is 0.8, and that no other significant factors are associated with the observation process (e.g. duplicate counts). The Swiss Great tit population can therefore be projected to comprise $((8000:1000):0.8) \times 42,000 = 420,000$ territories. It is also important to calculate the confidence interval which indicates the reliability of the estimate.

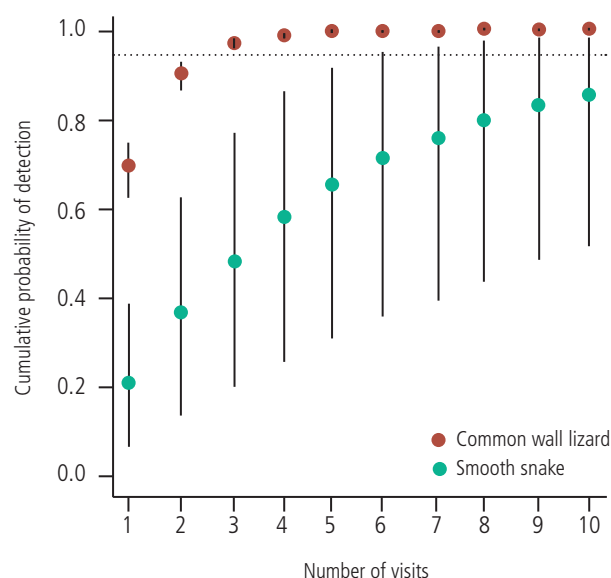
The sample

The explicit portrayal of measuring populations and their distribution as a sam-

Fig. 2: Probabilities of detection for Common wall lizard and Smooth snake (incl. Bayesian confidence interval). The two species have different probabilities of detection per visit (approx. 0.7 and 0.2). If an area is visited multiple times, there is a cumulative probability of 0.95 that the Common wall lizard will normally be detected after three visits, given the species does occur in the area. A significantly greater number of visits will be needed for the Smooth snake. The necessary number of visits per site is scarcely affordable; the risk that the species will not be detected despite being present is high. This makes statistical methods worthwhile that correctly estimate abundance and distribution.



Smooth Snake. Photo credit: Thomas Ott, Bubendorf



pling process shows that the selection of both samples must follow certain rules to allow for conclusions to be drawn based on the laws of statistics. The most important principle to be applied in the first step is that of random sampling which is the only way to ensure that a representative sample is being obtained.

The adequate treatment of the observation process must also follow certain rules. There must be a certain degree of standardisation in measurements, for example with respect to spatio-temporal sampling, the method used, and the conditions under which observations are recorded. However, standardised methods alone are not sufficient to guarantee reliable measurements of biodiversity. Experience has shown that many other influences can not fully be eliminated (e.g. variation in the recorders' levels of experience or variation in population density) and that even in highly standardised monitoring programmes the probabilities of detection are not constant. Normally several site visits are needed to be able to estimate the probability of detection. A simplified example can illustrate this: If one finds a species known to occur in the area on the first visit but not on the second it can be said that the probability of detection is 0.5. Figure 2 shows empirical probabilities of detection for the Common wall lizard

and the Smooth snake; the data were collected as part of the field work undertaken to update the 2005 Red list of reptiles.

Unfortunately most monitoring programmes show deficits in one or both of the sampling components described above. Very good examples of programmes explicitly taking account of both components are Biodiversity Monitoring Switzerland BDM (Weber et al. 2004) and the programme monitoring common breeding birds in Switzerland MHB (Kéry & Schmidt 2008). The work undertaken to update the red list of amphibians similarly observed the principles described above (see article on p.16). In all cases a random spatial sample was or is being surveyed multiple times per season using methods that allow for estimates of probabilities of detection and thus also of total populations and ranges. If the rules described above are followed, a monitoring programme will deliver good-quality information; this is also true for programmes relying on volunteers.

Conclusions

The principles of good monitoring are easily summarised. First one has to consider which question the monitoring programme is intended to answer. In the example used above the question was, "How many Great tits are there in Switzerland?"

Next one has to decide which of the biodiversity metrics are suitable to answer this question. Abundance and distribution are metrics of practical relevance in our view. The following step involves careful sample selection and a data collection protocol that allows for unavoidable observational errors to be minimised, be it in the field or later in the course of data analysis. If the sample is taken at random and consideration is given to incomplete observability, then the monitoring programme will allow for reliable inference to be made, resulting in correct decisions being taken in conservation management.

References

biodiversity.ch/index.en.php > Publications